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ABSTRACT

"Compensatory" and "spillover" models have described the two basic relationships individuals form between work and nonwork experiences. The assembly line worker seeking compensation in nonwork activities for deadening work exemplifies the first. A person whose nonwork activities are an extension of work experiences exemplifies the second. The study was designed to deal with criticisms of past research; an individual's own perceptions of his two social environments were used to determine how he personally saw them as related. His self-concept was considered to determine whether any individual differences moderate the form of adjustment an individual achieves between the two spheres. A sample of 178 individuals, using a set of 25 semantic differential scales for comparison, could be classified into four types: spillover/work-oriented; spillover/nonwork-oriented; compensatory/work-oriented; and compensatory/nonwork-oriented. Analysis revealed that both types of spillover individuals viewed both spheres of experiences equally. Compensatory individuals showed sharp contrasts--the work-oriented viewed work experiences as more positive, and the nonwork-oriented viewed them as less positive, than nonwork experiences. Compensatory individuals of both types viewed themselves as less deliberate, active, orderly, and challenging than did spillover individuals. The theoretical implications of these results are discussed. (Author/AJ)

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INDIVIDUAL REACTIONS TO WORK: THE COMPENSATORY AND SPILLOVER MODELS RE-EXAMINED

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University of New Mexico

Technical Report No. 32

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A sample of 178 individuals were asked to describe their work experiences, nonwork experiences, and their self-concept using the same set of 25 semantic differential scales. Comparisons of these descriptions permitted each individual to be classified into one of the following four types: Spillover - Work-oriented, Spillover - Nonwork-oriented, Compensatory - Work-oriented, and Compensatory - Nonwork-oriented. Analysis of the content of the descriptions revealed that spillover individuals of both types viewed their work and nonwork

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experiences in approximately equal ways. Compensatory individuals, however, showed sharp contrasts. Those who were work-oriented viewed their work experiences as more positive than their nonwork experiences. Those who were nonwork-oriented viewed their work experiences as less positive than their nonwork experiences. Furthermore, compensatory individuals viewed themselves as less deliberate, orderly, active, and challenging than spillover individuals. The theoretical implications of these results are discussed.

INDIVIDUAL REACTIONS TO WORK: THE COMPENSATORY AND SPILLOVER MODELS RE-EXAMINED*

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The "compensatory" and "spillover" models have been set forth as describing the two basic relationships an individual forms between his experiences in the work sector of his life space and his experiences in the nonwork sector (Wilensky, 1960). The compensatory model is based on the belief that individuals are capable of moving from one institutional setting to another with differential and nearly independent investments of themselves in these different settings (Dubin, 1956; Faunce and Dubin, in press). Individuals are viewed as behaving in different institutional settings and effectively insulating their behavior in one setting from their behavior in another. The most commonly used example of this model is the assembly line worker who seeks compensation in his nonwork activities for the deadening and unsatisfying experiences of work (Wilensky, 1960). It is also possible that individuals who have highly rewarding or involving work experiences will not seek additional rewards or involvements in other behavioral settings (Faunce and Dubin, in press). The latter type of individual possibly seeks "negative" compensation for his work experiences by "turning everything off" when he leaves work.

The spillover model is based on the notion that the nature of a person's work experience influences what he does away from work. There is an "extension" of experiences in the work sphere to experiences in the nonwork sphere

such that an individual perceives no boundary between the two spheres of social experience (Odaka, 1970; Parker, 1971). For example, an individual in a job in which there is little opportunity to engage in social behavior with others will engage in equally unsociable behavior away from work (Meissner, 1971). Alternatively, if an individual's work experiences are satisfying and permit personal growth, his satisfying activities at work will be reflected in the choice of similarly satisfying nonwork activities (Argyris, 1957, 1973; Wilensky, 1960).

Past research concerned with work and nonwork has either focused on variations in patterns of leisure activities of individuals in different occupations (Burdge, 1969; Clarke, 1956; Gerstl, 1961; White, 1955), or has attempted to relate specific characteristics of an individual's job to his choice of leisure activities (Hagedorn and Labovitz, 1968; Meissner, 1971; Parker, 1971).[1] The spillover and compensatory models generally were used to interpret the results of this research. The interpretations, however, were based on the similarity or dissimilarity in behaviors and activities at work and away from work. If the content of the activities in each of the sectors contrasted with each other, the individual was assumed to be compensating for his work experiences in his experiences away from work. If the content of activities in each of the two sectors was similar, the individual was assumed to be spilling over the experiences in the work sector into the nonwork sector. The judgment of similarity or contrast in experiences at work and away from work was made by the investigator. The individuals who had the experiences were not asked to provide their judgment of the similarity or dissimilarity of experiences in the two sectors.

These studies also attempted to link aspects of the work sphere directly to aspects of the nonwork sphere. Although there would certainly appear to

be individual differences in the choice of leisure activities regardless of the type of job a person holds (Kando and Summers, 1971; Sorokin and Berger, 1939), past research has failed to consider these individual differences. Furthermore, the link between work and nonwork may not be direct. The individual, and all of his individual characteristics, may operate as an intermediary or moderator in the link between the two spheres.

The present study was designed to deal specifically with these two criticisms of past research. An individual's perceptions of his two social environments was used to determine the way in which the individual saw these two spheres as related. We also considered the individual's self-concept in an attempt to understand whether any individual differences moderate the form of adjustment an individual achieves between the two spheres.

CONCEPTUALIZATION

We begin with a segmentalist's view of social behavior in modern societies (Dubin, 1956; Parker, 1971). Two major sectors of social experience can be identified--the work sector and the nonwork sector. The work sector is bounded by an individual's work organization and all of the experiences that flow from membership in that organization. The nonwork sector includes all social experiences that occur away from work; e.g., in the family, church, or community.

The individual clearly functions in both of these major segments of his life space (Lewin, 1936). He is in continual interaction with these environments and serves as the connecting link between them. His behavior and his social roles in each environment are an expression of some or all of his personality characteristics in either of the two environments, or both (James, 1891; Mead, 1934; Simmel, 1955, 1964). It would appear, therefore, that a conceptualization leading to an understanding of the relationship of an individual to his

work and nonwork environments, and the relationship between those two social environments, should contain at least three elements--work, nonwork and self.

The model used in this study views the person, as revealed in his self-concept, as embedded in and linking, the two social environments (See Figure 1). The line connecting self-concept to each of the social environments denotes the possible similarity or dissimilarity of an individual's perceptions

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Insert Figure 1 About Here

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of himself and his perceptions of his experiences in his work and nonwork environments. We refer to this perceptual similarity or dissimilarity as the "fit" between an individual's self-concept and his perception of his experiences in these two environments.

We would expect individuals to differ with respect to which of the two environments they find more congruent with their self-concept. As a number of writers have observed, the degree of fit between an individual and an environment may be related to satisfactions and stresses experienced in that environment (Jahoda, 1961; Mumford, 1970; Pervin, 1968). Since we are concerned with an individual's reaction to experiences in the environments of work and nonwork, the degree of fit between his self-concept and these environments becomes an important consideration in understanding the adjustment he achieves between these environments.

The model also uses the individual's perceptions of his work and nonwork experiences to determine the nature of the relationship the individual perceives between the two spheres. If the individual's perceptions of the two spheres are similar, a spillover relationship is said to exist. If they are dissimilar, a compensatory relationship is said to exist.

With this model in mind, we can identify individuals with four different types of relationships between their self-concept, work experiences, and nonwork experiences. The first two types of individuals are both considered to perceive a "spillover" relationship between work and nonwork. The spillover relationship is based on the similarity (or congruence) in their perceptions of their work and nonwork experiences. The two spillover types are distinguished from each other, however, in the perceived similarity of their self-concept with one or the other of these environments. We define a "Spillover - Work-oriented" individual as one whose self-concept is perceived as more similar to his experiences at work than his experiences away from work. A "Spillover - Nonwork-oriented" individual is defined as one whose self-concept is perceived as more similar to his experiences away from work than his experiences at work.

The remaining two types of individuals are considered to be compensatory. These individuals perceive a sharp demarcation between their work and nonwork environments. As with the spillover individuals, they may be further subdivided based on the degree of similarity they see between their self-concept and these two environments. Thus, a "Compensatory - Work-oriented" individual is one who views his self-concept as more similar to work than nonwork, while a "Compensatory - Nonwork-oriented" individual is one who views his self-concept as more similar to nonwork than work.

The underlying assumption is that the individual's perceptions of his work and nonwork experiences should be used to determine whether a compensatory or spillover relationship exists for him since the substantive meaning of a given activity may have considerable variability among individuals (Kando and Summers, 1971; Sorokin and Berger, 1939). The research approach must use the individual's view of his social experiences, and not that of the investi-

gator, to identify the relationship the individual perceives between the work and nonwork sectors of his life space.

Using the four types just described, the present study attempted to determine whether individuals in each of the types perceived their work and nonwork experiences difierently and whether any individual differences were related to type membership.

METHOD

Data for this study were obtained in the first half of 1973 from 178 employees of a small pharmaceuticals firm located in a western state. All data were collected with a questionnaire instrument.

A mail-out-mail-back procedure was used. Individuals returned their completed questionnaires directly to this researcher at the university. With one follow-up, an overall return rate of thirty-seven percent was experienced.

The final sample contained somewhat more males than females. The vast majority of individuals in the sample were married and had at least some college education. A majority of the individuals in the sample were under thirty years of age. Almost seventy-five percent of the sample had been employed by the company for less than three years. Individuals in the sample held managerial, sales, technical, clerical, secretarial and production jobs.

Each subject described himself, his experiences at work, and his experiences away from work with the same set of 25 semantic differential scales (Osgood et al., 1957).[2] Additional data were also obtained for several standard demographic variables, and aspects of work and nonwork. Only the analysis of the semantic differential data is reported here.

Each individual was placed into one of the four types described earlier based on his responses to the semantic differential portion of the questionnaire

using the following procedure. The Euclidean distance, a measure of the similarity or dissimilarity of score profiles (Cronbach and Gleser, 1953; Osgood et al., 1957), was computed between self-concept and work, self-concept and nonwork, and work and nonwork directly from each individual's semantic differential responses. A small distance between two items indicated similarity in the description of the items; a large distance indicated dissimilarity in the descriptions.

An individual was considered to perceive a spillover relationship between work and nonwork if the distance computed between work and nonwork was less than the median distance between work and nonwork for the entire sample. An individual was considered to perceive a compensatory relationship between work and nonwork if the distance between work and nonwork for the individual was greater than the median distance for the entire sample.

Spillover and compensatory individuals were then subdivided into those who were work-oriented and nonwork-oriented. If the distance between self-concept and work was less than or equal to the distance between self-concept and nonwork, the individual was considered to be work-oriented. If the distance between self-concept and work was greater than the distance between self-concept and nonwork, the individual was considered to be nonwork-oriented. The somewhat more liberal criterion for identifying a person as work-oriented was deliberately employed since some past research has indicated that relatively small percentages of individuals tend to be work-oriented (Dubin, 1956; Orzack, 1959).

Multiple discriminant analysis was used to analyse the semantic differential data (Overall and Klett, 1972; Tatsuoka, 1971). This procedure is analogous to an analysis of variance applied to three or more groups. Discriminant analysis, however, has the advantage of being able to consider all measurement

variables at one time, rather than each variable singly. Thus, an overall test of the significance of a large number of correlated variables is obtained without the dangers that normally inhere in individual significance tests of such variables (Cramer and Bock, 1966; Tatsouka, 1970, 1971). Furthermore, the procedure identifies the variables that are most important in distinguishing among the groups. Separate multiple discriminant analyses using the procedure described by Overall and Klett (1972), were performed on the semantic differential data for work experiences, nonwork experiences, and self-concept.

RESULTS

Since there were four types, three discriminant functions were computed in each of the three multiple discriminant analyses. Only the first discriminant function in each analysis was statistically significant ($p. < .01$).[3]

The discriminatory power of the significant discriminant functions (cf. Tables 2 and 4) indicates that a substantial portion of the variance in the semantic differential scales was explained by membership in the four types. Thus, a reasonably strong relationship existed in this sample between membership in the types and perceptions of work experiences, nonwork experiences, and self-concept.

We shall first examine the results of the analyses of work and nonwork experiences to determine whether individuals in each of the four types perceived these experiences differently. We shall then turn to the results of the analysis of the self-concept data to determine whether any individual differences distinguished the members of the four types.

Perceptions of Work and Nonwork Experiences

Discriminant function centroids on the significant discriminant functions

for work and nonwork experiences are shown in Table 1. The centroids for both work and nonwork experiences of the two spillover types are very similar in-

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Insert Table 1 About Here

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dicating that members of these two types had very similar perceptions of these experiences. The opposite is true of the compensatory types. The size of the differences in their centroids indicates the members of these two types held very different views of their experiences in the two spheres.

To describe the nature of the similarities and differences in perceptions of work and nonwork experiences of the individuals in the four types, we must determine which of the semantic differential scales contributed most to differentiating among the types. We can then examine the mean scores on these scales to determine how they perceived their experiences in these two spheres.

Table 2 contains the semantic differential scales and corresponding standardized discriminant function coefficients for the significant discriminant functions for work and nonwork experiences. The scales are rank ordered separately by the absolute value of the coefficients. Using the rule

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Insert Table 2 About Here

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of thumb of considering those scales whose coefficients are approximately one-half the size of the largest coefficient as mainly differentiating among the types (Tatsuoka, 1970, 1971), we find that the first nine scales for work experiences, and the first thirteen scales for nonwork experiences, are largely responsible for the differentiation.

Table 3 compares the mean scores for all of the semantic differential scales for both work and nonwork experiences.[4] The first eight scales in

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Insert Table 3 About Here

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the table are those that emerged as important in both analyses. We shall focus our attention on these eight scales.

Spillover individuals of both orientations described their work and nonwork experiences in essentially positive terms. They saw their experiences in both spheres as having approximately equal amounts of variety, creativity, pleasantness, cheerfulness, order, companionability, friendliness, and challenge. There is some tendency in the data for Spillover - Work-oriented individuals to view their work and nonwork experiences more positively than Spillover - Nonwork-oriented individuals. The means for work and nonwork experiences are roughly equal within each of the types, and somewhat different between types. This is most clearly shown on the routine-varied, creative-uncreative, and pleasant-unpleasant scales. This pattern is not as consistent for the remaining scales. These results are consistent with the operation of the spillover model--what is perceived in the work sphere "spills over", or is equivalent to, what is perceived in the nonwork sphere.

The compensatory individuals, however, showed sharp differences between those who were work-oriented and those who were nonwork-oriented. Compensatory - Work-oriented individuals described their work experiences as considerably more varied, creative, challenging, orderly, and pleasant than their nonwork experiences. They also viewed their work experiences as somewhat more cheerful, companionable, and friendly than their nonwork experiences.

Compensatory - Nonwork-oriented individuals, saw their work experiences as contrasting with their nonwork experiences in the opposite direction. These individuals viewed their work experiences as less varied, creative, challenging, pleasant, cheerful, companionable, and friendly and slightly more orderly than their nonwork experiences.

It appears, therefore, that individuals may perceive two distinctly different compensatory relationships between work and nonwork. Those who are work-oriented, but also compensatory, evidently perceive their experiences at work as quite pleasant and containing variety and creativity. The fact that the nonwork experiences of these individuals are viewed as containing less variety, creativity, etc., may indicate they experience enough of these things at work and neither want nor need to experience them away from work.

The Compensatory - Nonwork-oriented individual may be the compensatory individual ordinarily discussed in the literature (Meissner, 1971; Wilensky, 1960). These individuals may be compensating for low levels of variety, creativity, challenge, etc., that they experience at work by engaging in nonwork experiences with compensatingly larger amounts of these characteristics.

Individuals thus appear to exhibit considerable variability in their reaction to their work experiences and the way in which they relate the work and nonwork spheres of their life space. In short, the quality of the work experience may have a very different impact on different individuals. To shed some light on this issue, we examined the semantic differential descriptions of self-concept of the individuals in each of the four types.

Perceptions of Self

The centroids computed on the significant discriminant function from the analysis of the semantic differential descriptions of self-concept are shown

in Table 1. The compensatory and spillover types are clearly distinguished from each other. However, being either work-oriented or nonwork-oriented provided little in the way of further distinction. These results indicate that the self-concepts of compensatory individuals are distinctly different from the self-concepts of spillover individuals.

Table 4 shows the semantic differential scales used to measure self-concept, their standardized coefficients on the significant discriminant function, and the mean scores of each of the four types on each of the scales. The scales are rank ordered by the absolute value of the coefficients.

Insert Table 4 About here

The first eleven scales shown in Table 4 are the most important in differentiating among the types. The mean scores of the four types on these scales indicate several characteristics of the types. The differences among the types is smallest on those scales that can be considered purely evaluative (cheerful-sad, pleasant-unpleasant) or primarily components of sociability (sociable-unsociable, friendly-unfriendly). Apparently holding a positive view of oneself, or seeing oneself as sociable, is unrelated to the relationship one perceives between work and nonwork.

The major differences among the types appeared on the challenging-monotonous, deliberate-impulsive, orderly-disorderly, and active-passive scales. The two spillover types were virtually identical to each other as were the two compensatory types. The differences in self-concept on these scales was mainly between those having a spillover relationship between work and nonwork and those having a compensatory relationship.

Spillover individuals viewed themselves as more challenging, deliberate, orderly, and active than compensatory individuals. Individuals who view them-

selves as deliberate and orderly may intentionally maintain a similarity between their experiences in their two social environments (or at least their perceptions of them). Furthermore, if they view themselves as challenging and active, they may find it necessary to engage in activities in both environments that satisfy these personal characteristics. In contrast, individuals who possess less of these characteristics may feel no personal need to maintain a congruence between the two major spheres of social activity.

These data suggest the possibility that differences in self-concept distinguish individuals who have a spillover or compensatory relationship between work and nonwork. The quality of the work experience is no doubt important in influencing these relationships. The nature of the person, however, cannot be overlooked as a potent moderating variable in the work-nonwork relationship. The individual is shaped into what he is well before he takes his first job. The more or less permanent characteristics of the person may be highly important in determining the relationship any one individual forms between his work and nonwork experiences.

DISCUSSION

The literature on work and nonwork has suggested that the individual makes an adjustment to his work and nonwork environments that is either "spillover" or "compensatory". It was assumed that the same mechanisms operate to produce either of these results and that it is the environments that trigger the particular adaptations made.

Our data suggest that this whole issue may have to be reformulated. The alternative is to see the possibility that the two orientations may be due to differences in individuals rather than differences in environments. Furthermore,

these individual differences may result in a very different dynamic that produces the spillover orientation than that which produces the compensatory orientation.

A model describing the dynamics of a spillover orientation can be formulated as follows. An individual with a spillover orientation perceives his entire world as being a whole with some degree of integration and unity in it. For such an individual the world of behavior is not segmented into independent parts to which separate and distinctive adjustments may be made. This conclusion is supported by our findings as follows:

1. The two types of spillover individuals clearly saw both, the work and nonwork environments in much the same manner. The same degree of positiveness perceived in their work experiences was also perceived in their nonwork experiences.
2. Both types of spillover individuals had similar self-concepts.
3. Spillover individuals described their self-concepts as more deliberate, orderly, challenging, and active than compensatory individuals. Furthermore, the spillover individuals were clearly differentiated from the compensatory individuals in their self-concepts so that the distinctions between spillover and compensatory individuals appears to be typological and not just a matter of degree.

Spillover individuals seem to view the world as having some kind of unity. This "world view" may be related to the distinguishing self-concepts of spillover individuals who see themselves as more deliberate and orderly (putting things together) and active and challenging (going toward their life space) than compensatory individuals.

A model explaining the dynamics of the compensatory orientation can be described in a comparable way. An individual with a compensatory orientation perceives his world as being segemented, without any necessary unity among the parts. Since his life space is seen as segmented, such an individual may order the segments of his life space in some sort of hierarchy with the most preferred segment of that life space being his central life interest (Dubin, 1956). This conclusion is supported by our findings as follows:

1. The two types of compensatory individuals clearly saw both the work and nonwork environments in very different ways. As shown in Table 3, work and nonwork were evaluated in opposite ways by the two compensatory types on each of the eight scales that were important for the two environments. This suggests that the environments of work and nonwork are perceived in opposite ways, depending on whether the compensating individual sees work as a central life interest, or places a higher value on the nonwork environment.
2. Both types of compensatory individuals had similar self-concepts.
3. Compensatory individuals had a different self-concept than spillover individuals as noted in (3) above. Compensatory individuals were less active and challenging (less impelled toward their life space) and less deliberate and orderly (no need to put things together) than spillover individuals.

Thus, it may be the personalities or self-concepts that distinguish spillover from compensatory individuals. Furthermore, since the compensatory individual views his life space as segmented, the content or characteristics of the various portions of his life space determine the area in which he will focus his interest.

The results of this study indicate that individuals who perceive their work experiences as high in variety, creativity, and challenge may form a spillover relationship between work and nonwork. Other individuals who hold the same perceptions of their work experiences, however, may form a compensatory relationship. In short, the quality of the work experience may have a very different impact on different individuals. Individuals may exhibit considerable individual variability in their reaction to their work experiences and the way in which they relate the work and nonwork spheres of their life space.

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FOOTNOTES

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This paper is a revision of a paper presented at a "roundtable" discussion of the Organizations and Occupations Section of the American Sociological Association Annual Meeting, August 27, 1973.

[1]A comprehensive review of the work-nonwork literature is given in the author's "Work and Nonwork: A Review of Theory and Empirical Research." Technical Report No. 31, University of California, Irvine, January 1975 Office of Naval Research Contract N00014-69-A-0200-9001, NR 151-315.

[2]Table 2 lists the 25 scales used in the study.

[3]Only the significance levels for the significant discriminant functions are given in the text. The tables showing the discriminant function coefficients contain the value of the test statistic and the degrees of freedom used for the statistical test.

It should be noted that there is some possibility the significant separation of the four groups could have been produced artifactually. Since the same data were used for both the classification and discrimination of the groups, it is possible for the discriminant analysis to merely reflect the classification procedure and not represent any real differences

among the groups. If the distributions of responses on the semantic differential scales were highly skewed, the discriminant analysis would show significant differences among the groups which would be more a reflection of the classification procedure than substantive differences among the groups.

The distributions of responses in this sample were slightly skewed. Thus, there is the possibility that the statistically significant differences shown by the discriminant analysis were in part artifactual. For a more complete description of this methodological question, and the distributions of responses on the semantic differential scales, see the author's doctoral dissertation, "Self-Concept, Work, and Nonwork: An Empirical Examination of the Compensatory and Spillover Models", University of California, Irvine, 1974, pp. 125-131.

[4]Based on the scores assigned to the seven categories of the scales placed between pairs of adjectives, the mean scores in the tables should be interpreted as follows. A mean score of 4.0 indicates that neither of the two adjectives of a pair is applicable to the group for which the mean was computed. The closer a mean score is to 1.0, the greater the amount of what is indicated by the left-hand adjective applies. The closer a mean score is to 7.0, the greater the amount of what is indicated by the right-hand adjective applies.

Figure 1

Individual's Relationship to His Work and Nonwork Environments

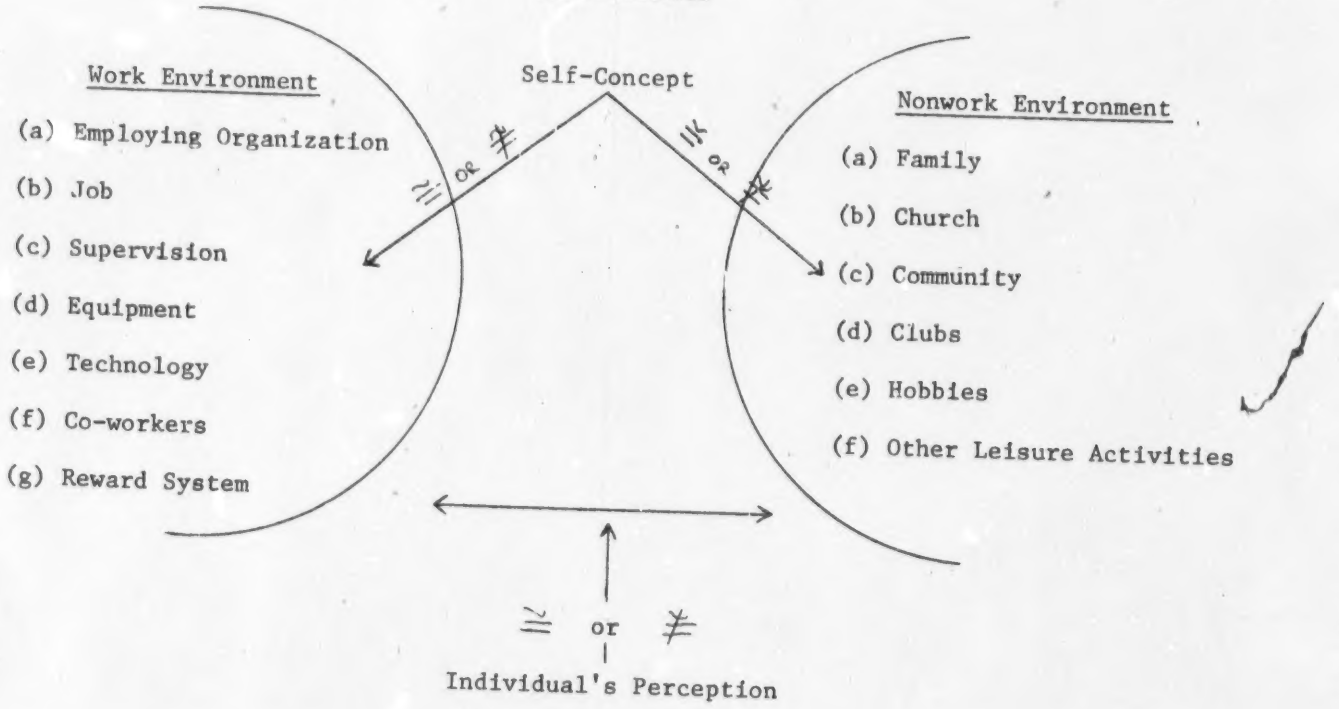

Table 1

Discriminant Function Centroids for Each of the Four Types on the Significant Discriminant Function for Work Experiences, Nonwork Experiences, and Self-concept

	Centroids		
Type	Work Experiences	Nonwork Experiences	Self-Concept
Spillover - Work-Oriented	-1.83	2.05	1.85
Spillover - Nonwork-oriented	-1.39	2.01	2.12
Compensatory - Work-oriented	-1.45	4.30	3.05
Compensatory - Nonwork-oriented	0.19	2.89	3.40

Table 2

Standardized Discriminant Function Coefficients for Each Type for the Semantic Differential Scales describing Work and Nonwork Experiences

Work Experiences		Nonwork Experiences	
Semantic Differential Scale	Standardized Discriminant Function Coefficient	Semantic Differential Scale	Standardized Discriminant Function Coefficient
routine - varied	-.64	friendly - unfriendly	-.56
creative - uncreative	.60	orderly - disorderly	.54
pleasant - unpleasant	.46	cheeful - sad	.35
skilled - unskilled	-.45	attentive - inattentive	-.32
cheerful - sad	-.43	challenging - monotonous	.31
orderly - disorderly	.40	deliberate - impulsive	.31
companionable - secluded	.36	sociable - unsociable	.28
friendly - unfriendly	.30	routine - varied	-.28
challenging - monotonous	.28	active - passive	.26
exciting - dull	-.25	companionable - secluded	.26
inflexible - flexible	-.25	pleasant - unpleasant	-.25
certain - doubtful	-.24	stable - changeable	.24
attentive - inattentive	-.23	creative - uncreative	.24
active - passive	-.20	productive - unproductive	.18
sociable - unsociable	.16	certain - doubtful	-.17
structured - unstructured	.14	skilled - unskilled	.15
complex - simple	-.14	conventional - unconventional	-.14
precise - vague	.13	interesting - boring	-.12
cooperative - competitive	.13	formal - informal	.12
productive - unproductive	-.13	complex - simple	-.11
interesting - boring	.12	exciting - dull	-.08
stable - changeable	.04	precise - vague	-.08
deliberate - impulsive	-.04	cooperative - competitive	.05
formal - informal	.03	structured - unstructured	.05
conventional - unconventional	-.02	inflexible - flexible	.03
Discriminatory Power[1]	41%	Discriminatory Power[1]	37%
Total Discriminable Variance[2]	175.06	Total Discriminable Variance[2]	163.08
d.f.	75	d.f.	75
	P<.01		P<.01
N	178	N	178

[1]Discriminatory power was measured with the Omega-squared statistic described by Tatsuoka (1970). This statistic is interpreted as the percentage of variance in the original set of measurement variables that can be explained by membership in the four types.

[2]Total discriminable variance computed by the procedure described in Overall and Klett (1972) is approximately distributed as a chi-square variate with degrees of freedom as noted.

Table 3

Mean Scores for Work Experiences and Nonwork Experiences for each of the Types

Semantic Differential Scales	Spillover Work-Oriented		Spillover Nonwork-Oriented		Compensatory Work-Oriented		Compensatory Nonwork-Oriented	
	Work	Nonwork	Work	Nonwork	Work	Nonwork	Work	Nonwork
routine - varied	5.7	5.5	5.1	5.0	5.5	4.4	4.0	5.1
creative - uncreative	2.3	2.3	2.5	2.5	2.0	3.9	3.6	2.7
pleasant - unpleasant	1.7	1.7	2.1	1.8	1.8	2.3	2.9	1.7
cheerful - sad	1.9	1.7	2.3	1.9	2.1	2.5	2.8	1.9
orderly - disorderly	2.2	2.5	2.2	2.3	2.7	3.9	3.0	3.3
companionable - secluded	2.3	2.1	2.7	2.2	3.0	3.5	3.3	2.5
friendly - unfriendly	1.7	1.8	2.1	1.8	2.0	2.1	2.6	2.0
challenging - monotonous	1.8	2.4	2.1	2.3	1.8	3.6	3.1	2.7
skilled - unskilled	2.0	3.2	2.3	3.0	2.2	3.9	2.4	3.4
exciting - dull	2.3	2.4	2.6	2.4	2.5	3.5	3.4	2.5
inflexible - flexible	5.9	5.8	5.2	6.0	5.4	5.8	4.7	6.2
certain - doubtful	2.3	2.8	2.5	2.6	2.3	3.2	2.8	3.2
attentive - inattentive	1.8	2.4	2.0	2.4	1.8	3.0	2.2	2.4
active - passive	1.8	1.9	2.0	2.1	1.6	3.2	2.5	2.2
sociable - unsociable	2.2	2.1	2.2	2.1	2.0	3.1	2.8	2.4
structured - unstructured	2.8	3.8	3.0	3.5	2.9	4.5	3.2	4.3
complex - simple	2.6	3.8	3.0	3.8	2.2	4.4	3.1	3.9
precise - vague	2.1	3.5	2.3	2.9	1.9	3.7	2.7	3.5
cooperative - competitive	3.1	2.6	3.6	3.0	3.9	3.4	4.2	2.9
productive - unproductive	1.8	2.1	1.8	2.1	1.7	3.3	2.4	2.5
interesting - boring	1.8	1.9	2.1	2.1	1.8	2.9	3.0	2.1
stable - changeable	3.8	4.2	3.9	3.9	4.3	4.9	4.5	4.2
deliberate - impulsive	2.7	3.7	2.6	3.2	2.9	4.7	3.0	4.2
formal - informal	3.9	5.1	3.9	5.2	4.2	5.8	4.0	5.9
conventional - unconventional	3.1	3.4	3.7	3.6	3.8	3.6	3.3	3.6
N	35	35	54	54	26	26	63	63

Table 4

Discriminant Function Coefficients and Means for Each Type for the 25 Semantic Differential Scales Describing Self-Concept

Semantic Differential Scale	Standardized Discriminant Function Coefficient	Means of Each Type on Each Semantic Differential Scale			
		Spillover Work-Oriented	Spillover Nonwork-Oriented	Compensatory Work-Oriented	Compensatory Nonwork-Oriented
sociable - unsociable	.59	2.1	2.0	2.3	2.7
cooperative - competitive	-.45	3.9	3.3	3.3	2.6
cheerful - sad	-.44	2.0	2.0	2.0	2.2
challenging - monotonous	.41	2.1	2.3	2.7	2.7
deliberate - impulsive	.41	3.1	3.1	3.8	3.8
friendly - unfriendly	-.33	1.9	1.9	1.7	1.9
exciting - dull	.32	2.5	2.9	3.1	3.0
skilled - unskilled	-.31	2.4	2.3	2.2	2.2
orderly - disorderly	.29	2.2	2.3	2.8	3.0
pleasant - unpleasant	.28	2.0	2.0	2.0	2.1
active - passive	.26	1.9	1.9	2.5	2.4
inflexible - flexible	.23	5.6	5.8	5.5	6.0
formal - informal	.23	4.1	4.9	5.0	5.2
interesting - boring	-.22	2.3	2.4	2.6	2.5
attentive - inattentive	-.22	2.0	2.2	1.9	2.1
complex - simple	-.22	2.7	3.2	2.6	2.9
structured - unstructured	-.21	2.9	3.1	3.8	3.4
productive - unproductive	.14	1.8	1.9	1.9	2.2
routine - varied	.10	5.4	4.7	4.7	5.0
stable - changeable	-.09	3.1	2.6	2.6	3.2
creative - uncreative	-.02	2.3	2.4	2.5	2.6
certain - doubtful	.02	2.4	2.4	2.6	2.8
precise - vague	.01	2.2	2.6	2.4	2.8
conventional - unconventional	-.01	3.3	3.6	3.5	3.9
companionable - secluded	-.01	2.3	2.3	2.2	2.9

Table 4 (Cont.)

Discriminatory Power[1]	30%				
Total Discriminable Variance[2]	132.15				
d.f.	75				
	$P<.01$				
N	178	35	54	26	63

[1]Discriminatory power was measured with the Omega-squared statistic described by Tatsuoka (1970). This statistic is interpreted as the percentage of variance in the original set of measurement variables that can be explained by membership in the four types.

[2]Total discriminable variance computed by the procedure described in Overall and Klett (1972) is approximately distributed as a chi-square variate with degrees of freedom as noted.